DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 356 707 HE 026 363

AUTHOR	Bailey, Jackson H.; And Others
TITLE	The Japan Papers.
INSTITUTION	NAFSA - Association of International Educators, Washington, DC.
REPORT NO	NAFSA-WP-29
PUB DATE	92
NOTE	39p.; Papers presented at the International Cultural Exchange Symposium (Tokyo, Japan, June 1989).
AVAILABLE FROM	NAFSA Publication Order Desk, 1875 Connecticut Ave., N.W., Suite 1000, Washington, DC 20009-5728.
PUB TYPE	Reports - Descriptive (141) -- Speeches/Conference Papers (150)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	College Faculty; College Students; Foreign Countries; Foreign Culture; Foreign Students; *Higher Education; *International Educational Exchange; Program Descriptions; Student Exchange Programs; Technology
IDENTIFIERS	*Japan; Japan United States Friendship Commission; Morehouse College GA; *United States; University of Massachusetts

ABSTRACT

This publication contains three papers on college student exchange between Japan and the United States. The first paper, entitled "The University of Massachusetts and Hokkaido University: A Case Study in Educational Cooperation," by Barbara B. Burn, describes the long-standing relationship between these two institutions in order to identify some of the main characteristics that have contributed to this relationship and as a means to explore some of the deterrents or impediments to educational cooperation between universities and colleges in Japan and the United States. The second paper, "Student Exchanges and the Use of Technology" by Jackson H. Bailey, discusses the diverse conflicts and difficulties that arise out of student exchanges between Japan and the United States and argues that these issues must be resolved because effective educational exchange is so important to education and technology in both nations. The third paper, "Morehouse College Offers a New Direction in Japanese African American Relations" by Lee Gallo, describes the in-progress development of a Japan-United States friendship commission and argues for the increased participation of black students in international exchange programs. (JB)

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ED356707

NAFSA Working Paper #29

The Japan Papers

Jackson H. Bailey
Barbara B. Burn
Lee Gallo

1992

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These papers were presented at the International Cultural Exchange Symposium at Aoyama Gakuin University in Tokyo, Japan, June 1989. The symposium was sponsored by the International Cultural Exchange Symposium Organizing Committee and the International Society for Educational, Cultural, and Scientific Interchanges (ISECSI).

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The University of Massachusetts and Hokkaido University A Case Study in Educational Cooperation

A paper prepared for the Intercultural Exchange Symposium, "Between Understanding and Misunderstanding—Problems of and Prospects for U.S.-Japan Cultural Exchange, Tokyo, Japan, June 12–13, 1989

Barbara B. Burn

Introduction

This paper explores the long-standing relationship between Hokkaido University (Hokudai) and the University of Massachusetts (UMass) in order to identify some of the main characteristics or happenings that have contributed to this long and close relationship, and also as a means to explore some of the deterrents or impediments to educational cooperation between universities and colleges in Japan and the United States. It is hoped that the discussion of lessons to be learned from the Hokudai-UMass link may provide useful guidance for the development of such collaboration in the future. After describing the link as it exists today, the paper looks at items that have contributed to the link as communalities between the two geographic regions, the universities' shared early history, faculty and staff, international exchanges and commitment, international education in Japan, expanding Japanese interests and studies in the United States, deliberate efforts to sustain and advance the relationship, and luck. The final section of the paper attempts to analyze the pluses and minuses of the Hokudai-UMass experience in the wider context of cooperation in higher education between Japan and the United States.

Examining the more than 100-year-old relationship between Hokkaido University and the University of Massachusetts as a case study of educational cooperation between Japan and the United States is timely for the following reasons:

• The interest of U.S. colleges and universities in international exchanges with Japan is rapidly increasing both in terms of hosting students from Japan in the United States or on "branch campuses" in Japan; and of sending American students to Japan for language and area studies, for internship/work experience, and for insights into Japanese approaches to business and management.

• The interest of Japanese young people in pursuing studies at U.S. colleges and universities will also continue to increase, at least for the next several years until the 18-year-old age group declines. It appears that the growing demand of Japan's business firms for Japanese staff proficient in English and with experience abroad is motivating many young Japanese to study in the United States, especially in programs of intensive English.

• Japan has made an explicit commitment to international education in 1983 when then Prime Minister Yasuhiro Nakasone formulated the goal of increasing foreign student enrollments tenfold, from about 10,000 to some 100,000 by the year 2000. Even if not

attained by then, the articulation of such an ambitious goal communicates a remarkable dedication to international education.

• In the United States there is a widening awareness of the urgent need for more Americans to have a knowledge of the languages and cultures of other countries, with Japan as a high priority in this because of growing international interdependence. This goal was emphasized in the report earlier this year of the National Governors' Association entitled America in Transition: The International Frontier.

• The expansion of international education and exchanges within and between Japan and the United States as a means to foster increased mutual understanding is especially timely in a period when Japan's remarkable industrial competitiveness, technological advancement, and international trade surplus are generating tensions in the United States. Simultaneously, perceptions of U.S. responsibility for the trade situation are producing parallel negative attitudes among some Japanese. In his recent article, "Containing Japan" in the May 1989 Atlantic Monthly, James Fallows noted the delicacy of relationships between the two countries in referring to their "fragile, walking-on-eggs quality." Irrespective of the validity of Fallows' allegations concerning Japan's not curbing the expansion of its economic power, the importance of Japan and the United States to each other and the troublesome issues between them to the importance of encouraging more educational exchanges.

The Hokkaido-Massachusetts University Relationship Today

The Hokudai-UMass relationship today comprises an extensive panoply of interactions, only some of which are strictly academic. In itself, this is a positive commentary on how the relationship has evolved. Among its many different elements today are the following:

1. An annual exchange of undergraduates (usually three each way) for the full academic year, typically with Monbusho support for one to two UMass students and with in-state tuition waivers and modest scholarships from UMass for the Hokkaido students in Amherst. Hokudai itself now provides some scholarship support for the UMass student not funded by Monbusho.

2. Hokkaido has hosted a four-week program every other summer for UMass students since 1980, while UMass launched a similar program in summer 1989 for Hokudai students.

3. Reciprocal exchanges—of faculty members, sometimes while on sabbatical leave, sometimes for briefer periods of several days or weeks; and of international office/programs and other administrative staff, including presidents and other senior officials—have occurred with increasing frequency to advocate and promote additional exchanges between the two institutions.

4. The two universities have honored each other through awarding honorary degrees: by Hokkaido University in 1963 to President John W. Lederle; in 1976 to President Robert

Wood, Chancellor Randolph W. Bromery, and Professor John M. Maki; in 1977 to Professor Mack Drake; and in July 1989 to Professor William Mellon; and by UMass in 1963 to President Harusada Suginome, in 1983 to President Mikio Arie, and in 1987 to Hokkaido Governor Takahiro Yokomichi.

5. The remarkable, shared origins of Hokudai and UMass have been celebrated on various appropriate occasions honoring William S. Clark and the relationship: at the 50th anniversary of Hokkaido University in 1926, at the centennial celebrations of the universities in 1963 and 1976 respectively, and on the 100th anniversary of Clark's death, March 9, 1986.

6. The interuniversity relationship and exchanges extended to include members of the wider community in Hokkaido in 1968. Encouraged by President Suginome, the first group of young professionals was sent to Massachusetts (including Amherst)—a group that has since come every other year. Starting later, members of the Hokkaido Women's Overseas Study Group began an annual visit. Comparable wider participation has been more recent from Massachusetts, and chiefly as part of the developing sister-state relationship, including teachers, business people, school children, and government officials.

7. Important symbolically and aesthetically as well as historically to the Hokudai-UMass relationship is the William S. Clark Memorial project at the Amherst campus. A specially landscaped area on the hilltop site of Clark's home when he was president of "Mass Aggie" was made possible through support from the two universities and their alumni and, very generously, from the government of Hokkaido. The project, when completed, will be a tribute to and symbolize the educational cooperation between the United States and Japan as epitomized by the Hokudai-UMass linkage. This project's development involved the collaboration of UMass and Hokkaido professional landscape architects as well as students in this field from both universities in a juried design studio.

8. As implied above, in the last several years, the Hokudai-UMass linkage has become more diversified with both universities playing an important role in the development of a sister-state relationship in conjunction with a range of activities and interests: the arts, education, sports, tourism, and business.

Communalities: Hokkaido and Massachusetts

Since the beginning of their relationship, the communalities between the island of Hokkaido and the State of Massachusetts, particularly the western half, have constituted an important foundation and stimulant for the collaboration between the two universities, and generated a similarity in their roles and in the images they project in their respective geographic regions. Many of the UMass faculty who spent time in Hokkaido have emphasized the striking similarities. For example, Professor Barrie Greenbie, the UMass landscape architecture professor initiated the Clark Memorial project. In his April 1989 lecture entitled "The Yankee Landscape of Northern Japan,"

Greenbie commented that:

> The natural environment strikes the New Englander as very much like home .... The historic buildings are so like those of the eastern United States around the turn-of-the-century that a Yankee visitor has an overpowering sense of déja vu.

An article in the Sunday New York Times of April 29, 1984, also points to some of the shared characteristics of Hokkaido and Massachusetts (and New England) landscapes, including dairy farming and a frontier-mindedness:

> Most of the signs seem to read New England. Black-and-white cows nearly as big as tractors chew lazily alongside large wooden barns and tall rows of corn point to ranges of green ....
>
> Appalachian-sized mountains. Stands of slender birch trees, with tiger lily fringes, push up to the roadside...The primary difference between Hokkaido and the rest of this heavily industrialized, crowded country is that it is still raw and largely unsettled. Hokkaido is Japan's frontier and looks the part...The similarities to New England are no accident since specialists from Massachusetts helped found Hokkaido's major university and its dairy industry.

While shared geographical features have been and still are important to the Hokudai-UMass linkage (the regions are on approximately the same latitude), at least as important are some other less tangible communalities. According to many of the UMass persons interviewed for this paper, people in Hokkaido and in Western Massachusetts share something of a pioneering tradition and spirit, along with such personal characteristics associated with frontier living as self-reliance and an independent spirit. It is impressive, for example, that the members of the Hokkaido Women's Overseas Study Group that visits in Massachusetts every year leave their husbands at home to participate in this program.

In a special way, Emily Dickinson, the reclusive Amherst poet who has a large following in Japan (all her works have been translated into Japanese), may epitomize some of the values shared by the peoples of Hokkaido and Massachusetts. Summarized by a Japanese participant in a conference on Dickinson held in Amherst several years ago, they include a love of nature, an appreciation of privacy and solitude, and a higher priority to individualism than may characterize national values.

A Shared Early History

The early history which links Hokkaido University and the University of Massachusetts —and the prefecture of Hokkaido and the Commonwealth (State) of Massachusetts as well—involves two leading citizens of Massachusetts: Horace Capron and William Smith Clark.

Capron, a highly successful dairy farmer and textile manufacturer, was commissioner of

agriculture under President Andrew Johnson. Appointed adviser to the Meiji Emperor, 1871–75, for the agricultural and industrial development of Hokkaido, Capron was awarded Japan's Second Order of the Rising Sun for his services.

When the Meiji Emperor requested U.S. help in launching an agricultural college in Sapporo, the minister at the embassy of Japan in Washington who had met the energetic third president of Massachusetts Agricultural College (MAC) while visiting a Japanese student friend enrolled at "Mass Aggie", may have recommended Clark for the role. This recommendation was presumably endorsed by Capron who allegedly touched base with another Japanese student, Joseph Hardy Niijima, who studied with Clark when Clark taught at Amherst College prior to becoming president of MAC. (Niijima later founded Doshisha University, which still has close ties with Amherst College, adding to the Amherst-Japan relationship.

In Sapporo for less than a year, William Clark not only helped launch and was first president of Sapporo Agricultural College, but also taught, was principal of a preparatory school, set up its experimental farm, laid the foundation of Hokkaido's dairy industry, and was technical adviser to the government office administrating Hokkaido. Important to the legacy and image of Clark in Japan was an aspect of his approach to education which was emphasized by President Shigekazu Imamura at Hokkaido's Centennial Celebration in 1976. In the 1985-86 Hokkaido University Catalogue Imamura is quoted as saying that "President Clark had aimed at the development of the character of his students far beyond the scope of mere vocational education" (an aim which Imamura urged should still be a "driving force" for the university). As the same publication further states: "Admirable as Dr. Clark's achievement in the educational field was, his moral influence among his students and officers was distinctly greater" — including his still well-remembered farewell words to his students on leaving Hokkaido to return to Amherst: "Boys, be ambitious ! "

The importance to Hokkaido of Capron and Clark, so often affirmed over the years, was underscored by the Government of Hokkaido's inviting the descendants of Capron and Clark to attend at its expense the summer 1988 Centennial of the "Red Brick Building," the original and historically significant Prefectural Government Building in Sapporo.

It should also be noted that even though accounts of the early period of the Hokudai-UMass relationship mainly mention Clark, several former students and colleagues of Clark accompanied him: William Wheeler, David P. Penhallow, and William P. Brooks. Wheeler served as president at Sapporo Agricultural College (1878-79) and Penhallow as acting president after him, while Brooks continued in Hokkaido for some more years.

Another early link between Hokkaido and Massachusetts is Benjamin Smith Lyman, a distinguished geologist who was born in Northampton, Massachusetts, and, at the invitation of the Hokkaido Development Office in 1872, carried out the first detailed geological survey of the island of Hokkaido. Lyman wrote voluminously and was widely published. The Hokkaido University Library has a collection of Lyman papers, and a collection of several thousand books and papers is now with the University of

Massachusetts at Amherst, including some 1600 Japanese books, many of which are now rare and precious in Japan. The collection went largely unnoticed in a library in Northampton from 1921 to 1980 when the UMass librarian for East Asian studies, Ms. Yasuko Fukumi, discovered it. Through her initiative a major fund-raising drive in Japan enabled UMass to acquire and undertake urgently needed preservation measures for the collection. A committee in Hokkaido contributed to this effort.

Faculty and Staff International Exchange and Commitment

At the core of the Hokudai-UMass cooperation and exchange has been the strong commitment to the international bond on the part of faculty and staff at both institutions. In part this is a legacy of the early contacts made between the two institutions in the Clark era. This commitment also grew out of the next and more recent period of active faculty exchange from 1958 to 1962; Hokudai professors and administrators played an important role. When the U.S. International Cooperation Administration (ICA) proposed to support an exchange of professors of agriculture between Hokkaido University and a U.S. university (not UMass) in order to strengthen agricultural development in postwar Hokkaido, Hokudai insisted that the U.S. institution be UMass.

Under this exchange the UMass College of Agriculture (now College of Food and Natural Resources) sent 11 faculty members to Hokkaido University to help strengthen the agricultural curriculum, teach, and initiate research projects. Fifty-two professors and scientists from Hokudai, as well as from experiment stations and agricultural industries, came to UMass for advanced training and research during the same period. The warm relations and mutual understanding between the Hokkaido and Massachusetts faculty and others involved in these exchanges have made a crucial difference to the interuniversity relationship. In her account of her visit to the UMass commencement in May 1983 at which President Mikio Arie received an honorary doctorate in engineering, Caroline Atsuko Yang, executive director of the Fulbright Commission in Japan, noted:

> This special relationship was very obvious during the various festivities when I met many professors who had participated in the exchange program at Hokkaido and spoke warmly of their satisfying experiences in Hokkaido and Japan. I could not help but wish that more Japanese and American universities had such close relationships on the personal level rather than the formal and sporadic exchanges that characterize some of the exchange programs.

While at UMass the agriculture and other faculty who spent time in Sapporo have been vital in sustaining the ongoing relationship; in Hokkaido those who studied at UMass have been at least as dedicated, as was made clear to the author when visiting Hokkaido in January 1969, only several weeks after being appointed the first director of the newly established International Programs Office at UMass. It is also likely that the professor who until recently was chair of Hokudai's International Exchange Programs Committee had been at UMass in 1960-61, conducting research on food microbiology, and honored UMass with a return visit in the fall of 1988.

Although the numbers of Hokudai and UMass faculty members and staff teaching or pursuing research and studies at the "sister institution" may have declined since the ICA-funded project came to an end, there is nonetheless a steady trickle each way, and, as mentioned earlier, an expanded flow in the last two years or so in connection with the imminent sister-state relationship. Among the many fields of faculty members visiting the "sister institution" have been polymer science (Richard Stein of UMass to Hokkaido, the first of a number of times, as early as 1964), education, history, medicine, engineering, Japanese language and linguistics, and forestry.

International Education in Japan

In the late spring of 1974, Hokudai invited UMass to send ten undergraduates and a group leader to Sapporo for a two-week summer program, all expenses paid by Monbusho. Since then the program has involved students from both institutions, thus adding an important dimension to the link. The program was one of two supported at national universities in the summer of 1974 as part of the growing commitment of the Ministry and the national government to encourage more foreign student enrollments in higher education in Japan.

In the late 1970s there was concern in Japan that among the major industrialized nations, Japan lagged significantly in terms of foreign student enrollments both in absolute numbers and as a proportion of total enrollments in higher education, as shown in the table on the next page, taken from the September 10, 1981, issue of Mombusho News (p. 2).

With the deliberate policy to increase foreign student enrollments, their number had increased from 6,572 in 1980 to 22,154 by May 1987, according to figures of the Consulate General of Japan in Boston (Japan Bulletin, Vol. 7, No. 3, November 1988).

The Hokudai-UMass exchange has benefitted from Monbusho's increasing support for the internationalization of higher education in Japan in at least two ways. First, because this support has funded the establishment of programs in Japanese language and culture for foreigners at the national universities, Hokkaido, in April 1981, was able to establish an Institute of Language and Culture Studies. Foreign students, including some from UMass, could then enroll at Hokkaido even though they were not fully proficient in Japanese. That spring, Professor Shinichi Takaku accompanied a Hokkaido Broadcasting Company team to the Amherst area (to make a television documentary on Clark's life) and informed UMass about the new Institute and the resulting opportunity to send UMass students to Hokkaido for academic year study, starting 1981–82.

The second way the exchange has benefitted from Monbusho has been from its full support of one or two UMass students of the two or three since sent to Hokudai under the new academic year student exchange.

Expanding Japanese Studies and Interests in the United States

The Hokkaido-Massachusetts interuniversity link has taken on new and larger dimensions with the growing interest in the United States of Japanese language, culture, economy, and approaches to business and management. At the University of Massachusetts these growing interests have involved students, faculty, and administrators.

Nationally the enrollment of students studying Japanese language in U.S. colleges and universities has been increasing at a rate higher than for any other foreign language. According to recent statistics the increase in enrollments from 1983 to 1986 was 45.4 percent (the next highest rate being for Chinese, up 28.2 percent).

At UMass the number of students in Japanese language courses increased dramatically in the 1980s, especially in the last several years, with close to 200 students enrolled at all levels. The Five College Consortium has complemented Japanese language studies at UMass by allowing much more extensive course offerings relating to Japan. In addition to the UMass-Amherst, member institutions comprise Smith, Mount Holyoke, Hampshire, and Amherst Colleges. Available to students at all five institutions are their collective course offerings dealing with different aspects of Japan in such departments as history, comparative literature, geography, art, anthropology, sociology, political science, and religion. The UMass interest in Japan is further reflected in the growing number of its students who pursue studies in Japan: none until 1981 (except the occasional Fulbright grant awardee) to around 15 in the last academic year or two. These courses were offered mainly at the "sister institutions" of UMass in Japan (Hokudai plus Sophia, International Christian, and Nanzan Universities, and Tsuda College), with an additional 15 students in the one-month program that Hokudai has hosted alternate summers since 1982. As of summer 1988, 12 UMass students were able to go to Hokkaido, not for a formal academic program, but for a summer work experience under the UMass Cooperative Education Program and sponsorship from the government of Hokkaido.

UMass students, faculty, and administrators interested in Hokkaido have moved towards business and industry. Increasing numbers of undergraduate students majoring in management wish to combine this with Japanese language study. Under the auspices of the Amherst campus International Programs Office and the Hokkaido Sister-State Committee of Massachusetts, a growing priority is to encourage more mutual contact and collaboration between Massachusetts and Hokkaido businesses, especially in high technology fields (biotechnology, computers) in which Hokkaido University and UMass may have particular strengths. These programs will require some time develop.

The above-mentioned student exchanges and other activities add up to a lively interchange between the University of Massachusetts and Japan, especially with Hokkaido University. As part of this, the number of students and researchers at UMass from Japan has increased from 11 in 1967-68 to over 70 today, excluding the many short-term visitors. Among the students from Japan are those coming on reciprocal exchange from the "sister institutions" of UMass, including the several from Hokudai, usually about the same number that UMass sends to them.

Deliberate Efforts to Maintain and Advance the Relationship

It is difficult to single out the efforts made by individuals or groups at Hokudai and UMass to encourage and ensure the relationship between the two institutions. One important such effort, mentioned earlier, was the insistence on the part of Hokkaido University professors and officials in the mid-1950s that the U.S. university be partnered with Hokudai in an exchange of faculty members in agriculture. As an outcome of the 1958-62 exchange, virtually all of the participants from both institutions became permanently committed to the institutional tie and have promoted it in multifarious ways. For example, it was the UMass professors who had taught at Hokudai who were instrumental in having President Suginome invited to Amherst to receive an honorary degree in 1963 at the Centennial Anniversary of UMass.

President Harusada Suginome was a major contributor to the Hokkaido-Massachusetts relationship. In office during the 1958-62 exchange, he persuaded the Hokkaido Prefectural Government to support visits to Massachusetts (with Amherst a high point) of groups of young professionals and women. Dr. Suginome was a strong supporter of mutual understanding between nations through international exchanges (his daughter earned a master's degree in English at UMass). Suginome's initiative resulted in the establishment of the Hokkaido Youth Overseas Training Project which has since brought hundreds of young professionals from Hokkaido to the United States every second year since 1968 when Suginome led the first group. Amherst (the site of William S. Clark's grave) and Boston have been essential parts of their itinerary.

Another person important to the relationship, Mr. Gilbert Mottla of the UMass College of Food and Natural Resources, has for years coordinated the visits of the Young Professionals. His role in this and the UMass-Hokkaido link was recognized by the Hokkaido Government by Governor Naohiro Dogakinai's invitation to Mottla in 1975 to visit Sapporo and meet with him and other officials involved in the exchange. Indispensable to the parallel delegation, the Hokkaido Women's Overseas Study Group has been the committee of Amherst town/UMass women who have organized the several day visit for this group every year.

Among the many others who have significantly nurtured and advanced the Hokudai-UMass relationship have been the chairs and members of the International Exchange Programs Committee at Hokudai and the Hokkaido Committee at UMass, the staff of the international offices at each institution, and the institutional heads: at Hokkaido since Suginome, Presidents Horiuchi, Niwa, Imamura, Miura, Arie, and now President Yoshio Ban; and at UMass, Presidents Mather, Lederle, Wood, and, for close to a decade, President David C. Knapp.

The relevant committees at each university have contributed significantly. At Hokkaido the International Exchange Programs Committee is chaired by the president of the university. Its members include the deans of all the different faculties as well as the chairman of the Planning and Coordinating Committee and-the chairmen of the Academic

Exchange Program and Student Exchange Program Subcommittees of the International Exchange Programs Committee. This committee deliberates and recommends on international exchange policies and programs as well as on international collaboration in research. The parallel committee at UMass, the Hokkaido Committee, is also broadly representative of the campus, including faculty members from most faculties, schools, and colleges, with the chairman of the Department of Asian Languages and Literatures and the associate provost for International Programs serving ex officio. The Hokkaido Committee reports directly to the chancellor of UMass-Amherst, as well as to the Foreign and International Studies Council of the Faculty Senate. It recommends on policy and programs relating chiefly to the linkage with Hokkaido University and also more broadly to UMass concerns and involvements with Japan.

The Hokudai-UMass relationship would be deficient without the foreign affairs staff for both countries. Since the faculty exchange of the late 1950s and early 1960s, the Sapporo American Center together with Cultural Affairs and Consular staff have been supportive of the relationship. In Massachusetts as the relationship has reached a new level of activity in the last few years with steps taken towards a sister-state relationship, the Consulate-General of Japan in Boston has been very supportive, especially Consul-Generals Sadakazu Taniguich'i and Minoru Tamba.

Finally, with respect to supporters, the prefectural government of Hokkaido has assisted the Hokkaido-Massachusetts relationship for many years—for example, by paying one-third of the costs of the visits of the Hokkaido Young Professionals and Women's Groups. In the last several years with steps taken towards a sister-state relationship (discussed below), Governors Takahiro Yokomichi and Michael S. Dukakis have been supportive of the Interuniversity linkage. Ms. Kitty Dukakis has also demonstrated a keen interest in the Hokkaido relationship; she is a member of the sister-state committee in Massachusetts.

A recurring activity that sustains and deepens the Hokudai-UMass connection has been the various commemorative and other events which typically refer to the role of William Clark in Hokudai's beginnings. These events or special occasions have included the Clark's 50th and 100th and UMass' 100th and 125th anniversary celebrations; the five (going on six) special convocations or other occasions at which one or the other university (both in 1963) awarded honorary degrees to distinguished members of the other; and the 100th anniversary of Clark's death, March 9, 1986.

To mark the latter the prefectural government of Hokkaido placed a stone monument in Sapporo where Clark had lived to commemorate his service to both universities. In Amherst a program jointly sponsored by Amherst College, the Town of Amherst, and the University of Massachusetts included a gathering at the Clark grave site; remarks were made by a member of the Town's Select Board (himself chair of the University's Hokkaido Committee), by Professor John Maki Emeritus of the University of Massachusetts and the author of a biography of Clark (translated into Japanese by Shinichi Takaka in 1978, Kuraku — Sono Eiko to Zasetsu), and by the Honorable Sadakazu Taniguchi, Consul-General of Japan/Boston. A reception followed at Amherst

College where President Peter Pouncey spoke, and the Hokkaido Television Documentary on Clark was shown. Hokudai was represented at these events by Mr. T. Fujii of its Faculty of Law and the three Hokkaido students then at UMass.

The summer 1988 "Red Brick" Centennial (mentioned earlier in connection with the roles of Capron and Clark in the early phase of the Hakkaido-Massachusetts relationship) can also be seen as part of the remarkable series of formal ceremonies and events which have honored this relationship.

The final development resulting from deliberate and active efforts of individuals and organizations in Hokkaido and Massachusetts is the soon-to-be formalized sister-state relationship. First raised in the July 1985 discussions of the UMass Hokkaido Committee with President Arie, the goal was endorsed soon after by Governor Yokomichi in a letter to President Knapp and subsequently to Governor Michael Dukakis. Sister-state committees established in Hokkaido and Massachusetts brought together a number of interests and representatives of organizations in each geographic region whose participation and support, as noted earlier, seemed likely to help make the sister-state relationship possible.

Even in advance of the formalization of the relationship, the following activities took place (mostly in 1988), which has expanded the relationship to wider dimensions beyond the two universities

• Visit in February 1988 of the late Mr H. Noguchi, executive director of the Cultural Projects Bureau of the Hokkaido Shimbun, to explore and advance cultural exchanges between Hokkaido and Massachusetts, including a possible visit by the Boston Symphony to Sapporo, this and other exchanges supported by the Bureau.

• Ms. Sue Root, member of the Massachusetts-Hokkaido Sister State Committee and Executive Director of the World Affairs Council of Western Massachusetts, represented the Committee at the Red Brick Centennial, June 1988, as guest of Hokkaido.

• Four Massachusetts school children and one teacher participated in the July 1988 International Junior Art Camp, sponsored by the Hokkaido Shimbun.

• Three members of the Hokkaido Diet made a special visit to Amherst in mid-July and participated in a program designed to acquaint them with current developments in agriculture in Western Massachusetts, arranged by Dr. Larry J. Rosenberg of the International Program Office and Professor John Foster of the College of Food and Natural Resources of UMass.

• A number of Hokkaido teenagers visited Boston in August, and participated in a recreational and cultural program, including family homestays, arranged by a member of the Massachusetts-Hokkaido Sister State Committee.

• In September four Massachusetts youth participated in the Hokkaido Marathon.

• Also in September a delegation from Hokkaido comprising more than 200 persons, the "Wings of Friendship" Mission, visited in Massachusetts, chiefly in Boston but also in Amherst. A small, high-level group headed by Mr. Takashi Mukaida, treasurer general of the Hokkaido Government, attended a lunch hosted by UMass President Knapp and Chancellor Joseph Duffey at which Mr. Mukaida presented the final installment from the Hokkaido government of its generous gift towards the costs of the William S. Clark Memorial.

• A sister station agreement was entered into by Sapporo TV and WBZ-TV (Boston).

Although it is not possible to forecast the future activities and dimensions of the Hokkaido-Massachusetts sister-state relationship and its likely impact on the Hokudai-UMass tie, increasing collaboration and exchange in higher education, as in other fields, will probably be a priority. In discussing goals for the Commonwealth in implementing the relationship, the Massachusetts-Hokkaido Sister State Committee has tentatively identified its purpose as follows:

1. To encourage and assist a state-to-state sharing of cultural experiences, scientific and technical know-how, and resources between America, historically the "new world" of the western hemisphere, and Japan, the gateway to a rapidly changing "new world" of the North Pacific, and

2. To perpetuate and formalize a century-old legacy of close ties between Hokkaido and Massachusetts starting with William S Clark who was instrumental in guiding the initial development of Hokkaido.

Implicit in this vision is a belief that a successful long-term relationship can work only if it is understood to be beneficial to both the citizens of Massachusetts and the citizens of Hokkaido.

This vision, while it may be given life through numerous informal contracts between individuals, businesses, academic institutions, and other means, should be anchored by activities which are of enduring worth.

Examples of such activities suggested in committee discussion included encouraging industry-university collaboration between Hokkaido and Massachusetts with possible collaboration in Agri-Biotech Research Exchanges, the establishment of a Japan Studies Center at the Amherst campus of UMass, exchanges of teachers in lower and middle schools, and building on the experience of the North Pacific Program, a summer seminar held annually in Sapporo by the Fletcher School of Law and Diplomacy organized in collaboration with Hokkaido government authorities and members of the Hokkaido business community. The program focuses on problems and prospects of the North Pacific and brings together students and others from the seven North Pacific countries.

While the author does not have a comparable preliminary statement of the goals of

Hokkaido in entering into the sister-state relationship, judging from discussions and statements of various Hokkaido officials, it seems evident that the kinds of aims envisioned by the Massachusetts-Hokkaido Sister State Committee are in general shared by Hokkaido. It is also likely that the aims and activities under the new relationship will evolve over time.

Coincidence and Serendipity

An interuniversity relationship, like a friendship or marriage, is not only more apt to survive and grow stronger if the parties involved are committed and deliberately take actions to this end, but can also benefit greatly from unplanned and unexpected situations and fortuitous happenings. The strengthening of the Hokudai-UMass bond has probably gained added impetus from a number of such serendipities. (Although, it should be emphasized, one can only conjecture and cannot assume the existence of a causal relationship between what is listed below and the advancement of the bond.)

• President Suginome was committed to the notion that international educational exchange is important to international understanding and world peace well before becoming president of Hokkaido University.

• Former Chancellor Randolph Bromery, a key member of the UMass delegation to Hokudai's 1976 Centennial Celebration and strong supporter of UMass' participation in that event, is a distinguished geologist with special expertise on earthquake geology, an area of strength at Hokkaido University.

• Ms. Laurel Foster-Moore of the International Programs Office at UMass who has twice directed the UMass summer program in Sapporo and plays a key role in the Hokudai-UMass student exchange, lived much of her childhood in Sapporo and attended the Hokkaido International School which has also had a long relationship with UMass.

• Another IPO staff member, Senior Specialist Dr. Larry J. Rosenberg, is able to help nurture the UMass-Hokudai relationship in conjunction with his two 4–6 week annual visits to Japan to renew and extend his professional interests and contacts in international marketing relating to Japan.

• Mr. Minoru Tamba, consul general of Japan in Boston, 1986-89 and a strong supporter of the Hokkaido-Massachusetts relationship, was born in Hokkaido.

• A number of the individuals who have fostered the Hokudai-UMass bond had Fulbright scholarships or fellowships earlier in their careers: President Mikio Arie, President David C. Knapp, Professor Richard Minear (chair of the Amherst campus Hokkaido Committee), Professor H. Leland Varley Emeritus of UMass who for many years was a strong campus advocate of UMass involvements with Japan, and the author of this paper.

Lessons to be Learned

This paper has attempted to identify and describe the major factors and developments important to the growth and positive evolution of the Hokudai-UMass relationship. Insofar as a number of these have been or are quite specific to this relationship, they may not lend themselves to replication by other pairings of Japanese and U.S. higher education institutions, e.g. sharing a similar landscape and even an early president. Still other aspects of the linkage may, however, be relevant to or even serve as a model for other efforts towards inter-institutional international cooperation. These aspects can be summarized as follows:

1. Continuity is indispensable to the relationship, including a continuing involvement of people over a period of time, in order to build up an institutional awareness, memory, program capability, and pool of committed supporters.

2. More generates more. An inter-institutional relationship is more likely to be strong if one can point to forward momentum rather than a plateau in activity and involvement.

3. A diversification in the content or focus of the relationship similarly contributes more to its growth than the mere continuation of established patterns and programs. In this connection the multidisciplinary nature of the UMass involvement with Hokudai has been very important.

4. A habit or tradition of seizing or capitalizing on various opportunities, for example, visits of persons from the sister institution, institutional celebrations, and so on, to give visibility to and reenforce the inter-institutional tie is a very valuable way to advance it.

5. The existence or establishment of well-staffed structures at each of the two institutions (special committees, international exchange or programs offices) is virtually essential to the development and implementation of programs of international educational exchange and collaboration between the two institutions.

6. Support and commitment at the highest levels of leadership at the cooperating institutions is similarly essential to the health and vigor of the relationship between them.

7. The relationship of cooperation and exchange between Japanese and U.S. "sister" institutions should be mutually beneficial rather than contributing more to one than the other.

8. To the extent possible the relationship should build on, add to, reenforce, and foster a "mythology," image, ethos, and/or sense of roots that makes the relationship integral to the institutions' missions and identity.

9. Special funding, whether secured from international or external sources, while it will not assure a vigorous international linkage, is necessary to encourage and support it and to underscore its place among the program and policy priorities of the institutions.

Deterrents and Challenges to Collaboration

The Hokudai-UMass experience has also provided some insights on deterrents, or, viewed more optimistically, challenges that may face efforts at collaboration, and may therefore be instructive for other institutions.

1. The most difficult obstacle to expanded international exchange between Hokudai and UMass at the student level is the limit placed on the number of UMass students (2–3) who can study at Hokudai for the academic year. Apparently the consequence of the limited foreign student of Hokudai's Institute of Language and Culture Studies and its understandable concern to enroll a range of nationalities rather than have a predominantly American group, for all practical purposes this limit effectively impedes the relationship from responding to the growing student interest at each institution to study at the other, and has motivated UMass to seek supplementary exchange and study-abroad opportunities in Japan for its students.

2. The decline of the dollar vis-a-vis the yen in the last few years has deterred students and faculty members from going to Japan, including Hokkaido, because of its cost, except for the UMass students who benefit from the generous Monbusho scholarship support for their year at Hokudai. More actual swaps of costs would facilitate more student exchange (i.e., each student leaves at the home institution funds which the incoming counterpart will require for board, room, and tuition).

3. Another practical deterrent to the Hokudai-UMass exchange is, and presumably will continue to be, linguistic. Few American scholars know Japanese, some wrongly assume this precludes their teaching or pursuing research in Japan, and students without a strong grasp of Japanese lack the linguistic skills necessary to participate in Hokudai's Institute of Language and Culture Studies These situations limit the scope of international interchange.

4. The extent to which their year at UMass is treated as an extra year towards their bachelor's degree deters Hokudai students from applying to participate in the exchange is not known to the author. Whether it is a concrete deterrent or not, the impact on the relationship cannot be ignored because Hokudai's not giving its students credit for course work done at UMass has unfortunate implications.

5. Related somewhat to the above, the existence of a double standard for Hokudai and UMass exchange students is not ideal: that Hokudai students at UMass on exchange are expected to take regular UMass courses but not do well in them for reasons of insufficient English proficiency, and that UMass students at Hokudai are not expected to enroll in regular courses but in the Language and Culture Institute and do excellent work.

6. The major differences between the higher education systems in Japan and the United States can be a problem for cooperative relations between the institutions involved.

Relevant here are what is sometimes a relatively relaxed pace in undergraduate studies in Japan (especially compared to secondary school programs) and in the United States a much less even preuniversity preparation so that many American students enter college or university with relatively weak skills and background in some fields, especially mathematics. The different degree of priority given to graduate (postgraduate) study in the two countries—more in the United States than in Japan—is another disjunction between the two higher education systems.

7. As a close relationship between universities in different countries depends to a considerable extent on mutual knowledge and acquaintance between them, a challenge to international cooperation is the need for cultivating and adding to this mutual knowledge in the face of such deterrents as high costs, language proficiency, and geographic distance.

8. Cultural differences between the Japanese and American people and societies are another obvious challenge to interuniversity cooperation and exchanges. For this cooperation to be successful both sides need to learn about and try to achieve an empathic understanding and knowledge of the values and traditions of the other, for example, different approaches to decision-making.

Conclusion

Given the major roles of Japan and the United States in the increasingly interdependent world, the cultivation and expansion of mutual understanding between these two countries and their peoples is of increasing urgency. Interuniversity collaboration can make a significant contribution to this, as has been the experience of Hokkaido University and the University of Massachusetts during the more than 100 years of their relationship. Among the initiatives for the future that seem likely to be significant are the expanding role of the Northern Regions Center in Hokkaido in encouraging more exchanges and mutual knowledge between Hokkaido and Massachusetts, especially should it move in the direction of offering special programs in the Japanese language and culture for representatives from business and other fields from Massachusetts. Finally, while the relationship between Hokkaido and Massachusetts and between Hokudai and UMass has been long and multifaceted, with the entering into a formal sister-state relationship, it may be that cooperative activity and programs in this new phase will so flourish as to pale the rich legacy of past cooperation. Should this come to pass, it will surely be in the spirit of William S. Clark's often quoted phrase, "Boys, be ambitious!"

Appendix

Chronology of the Hokkaido University-UMass Relationship

1871-75 Horace Capron, Adviser in Hokkaido on agricultural-industry development
1873-76 Benjamin Smith Lyman did first geological survey of Hokkaido

1876-77 William S. Clark, President of Sapporo Agricultural College
1926 50th anniversary of Hokudai; unveiling of bust of William S. Clark at Hokudai
1958-62 42 Hokkaido agricultural faculty and scientists to UMass, 11 UMass to Hokudai
1963 President Harusada Suginome awarded UMass honorary degree and he awards Hokudai's to President John Lederle at UMass Centennial Celebration
1968 First of biannual visits to UMass, Hokkaido Young Professionals
1972 First of annual visits of Hokkaido Women's Overseas Study Group
1974 Monbusho-supported summer program at Hokudai for 10 UMass students and leader
1975 Establishment of Hokkaido Committee at UMass and of International Exchange Program Committee at Hokudai
1976 Hokudai Centennial: UMass Delegation to Hokkaido led by President Robert Wood
1976 Formal agreement for student exchange signed by Hokudai and UMass
1977 Visit to UMass of Hokudai Delegation led by President Shigekazu Imamura
1977 Honorary degree awarded by Hokudai to Professor Mack Drake in Amherst
1980 First of Hokkaido-hosted UMass summer programs in Sapporo
1981 Hokkaido Broadcasting Company visit in Amherst area to produce television documentary on the life of Clark
1983 Honorary Doctorate of Engineering awarded by UMass to President Mikio Arie
1985 Visit of Ms. Kitty Dukakis, wife of Governor Michael Dukakis, to Hokkaido
1985 Massachusetts Visit of President Arie: initial discussions sister-state relationship
1985 Visit to Hokkaido of President and Mrs. David C. Knapp
1986 Establishment of sister-state committees in Hokkaido and Massachusetts
1986 Ceremonies at Hokudai and UMass commemorating 100th anniversary of Clark's death
1986 Initiation of William S. Clark Memorial Project (landscape architecture)
1987 Official inauguration at UMass of William S. Clark International Center
1987 Massachusetts visit of Governor Takahiro Yokomichi, signed letter of intention on sister-state relationship, and awarded honorary degree by UMass
1988 Visit to Hokkaido of UMass University Chorale and Trade Winds Jazz Ensemble
1988 June "Red Brick" Centennial, Hokkaido, attended by Clark-Capron descendants and Sue Root of Massachusetts-Hokkaido Sister State Committee
1988 Visit to Massachusetts, including Amherst: Wings of Friendship Mission
1988 Visit three members of Hokkaido Diet to UMass and Amherst area
1989 (planned) Formal signing in Sapporo of Sister-State Agreement, Governors Yokomichi and Dukakis

STUDENT EXCHANGES AND THE USE OF TECHNOLOGY

A paper prepared for the International Cultural Exchange Symposium: "Between Understanding and Misunderstanding, Problems of and Prospects for U.S.-Japanese Cultural Exchange," June 12–13, 1989, Tokyo, Japan.

Jackson H. Bailey

We have entered a new phase in the evolution of relations between the United States and Japan. In the 1970s, Americans by the thousands "discovered" Japan through the medium of fine products. By the end of that decade, the rise in the value of the yen and the challenge of Japanese automotive know-how combined to generate a fear of Japan in the U.S. government and business circles—a fear that galvanized intense interest in Japanese business and management practices. By the mid-1980s the U.S. higher education community was coming to grips with the threat of a declining pool of college-age students and joined the eager throng trying to fathom the nature of the Japanese "challenge." No longer was educational and cultural exchange merely a "nice" thing as it had been for those who could afford to participate. Ironically the desire for "warm bodies" in a time of declining enrollments brought a rush of interest in international education and even in establishing branch campuses of American universities and colleges in Japan.

From 1985 on, the reality of the Japanese presence in the United States and the U.S. presence in Japan had become so pervasive that even those who deplored it or feared its implications began to struggle to come to terms with the dynamics of this new situation. The massive presence of Japanese nationals in the United States[1] and the growing presence of large numbers of Americans in Japan are altering the realities of our relationship. These phenomena can only increase their impact on us over the next decade for they are a reflection not only of public policy on both sides of the Pacific but also of larger global forces at work in our two societies. This reality is made concrete when we examine two statistics that reflect these policies. In the six Midwestern states of Ohio, Indiana, Michigan, Illinois, Wisconsin, and Iowa, the number of Japanese companies located in the manufacturing or service sectors of the region increased from 505 in 1986 to 886 in 1989. In Indiana alone the number rose from 16 (operational) in 1986 to 70 (operational and announced) in 1989. (By 1992, the regional figure topped 1,000 and the Indiana figure topped 100.) On the other side of the Pacific, the number of foreigners teaching English in Japan under sponsorship of the Ministry of Education rose from a modest 120 in the early 1980s to nearly 1,500 by 1988 and nearly 3,000 by 1992. The vast majority of these teachers were recruited from the United States, and the program is now jointly sponsored by three ministries (education, foreign affairs and home affairs).

Midwestern state and local governments continue to vigorously solicit Japanese investment. The Japanese government has set a target of 100,000 foreign students and teachers in Japan by 1997. This is the context within which we must examine the issue of student exchanges, and the end is not in sight. The interaction of our two peoples will almost surely increase geometrically over the next decade. The key question is whether we will grow in mutual understanding.

As a result of these forces already at work bringing us together, the challenges we face are complex, even daunting. This is especially so because there are few models. (A pioneering institution such as Earlham College has more than 25 years of successful experience in designing and administering student, faculty, and grass roots civic leader exchange programs with Japan, but most colleges have only recently begun the process.) Further, each side brings to the task experiences and cultural assumptions that are of little help, and, in fact, may hinder the process. In some ways our respective situations almost seem to be mirror images of the other, and we shout into the wind, only deepening the complexity of the relationship and the confusion we face.

For Japan, the fundamental challenges stem from two sources. One is the *Shima-guni* or closed-society mentality. The other is the mentality of the bureaucratic mind in all its manifestations. The thrust and structure of Japanese rules and regulations regarding the entry into Japan of people or things, whether they are part of commercial or of cultural exchange, demand proof that the person or item should be allowed to enter. The assumption is that persons or things should not be allowed in until there is clear and detailed evidence supporting entry. This assumption underlies all transactions whether they involve a small matter such as a video cassette of a U.S. TV program, a set of photo negatives for a cultural exchange poster, or the appointment of a foreign professor to a regular faculty position in a university. In each of these cases the implicit parameters of the situation assume that the answer is "no" until incontrovertible proof is supplied, normally in writing, that the item or person is eligible.

The problems generated by the closed society mind-set are compounded by the mentality of a bureaucratic system that thrives on paper work, documentation and seals of approval required at various levels of a hierarchical structure. Japanese society operates in a mold that assumes centralized bureaucratic leadership and control for initiatives in all aspects of public life and nowhere more than in the arena of cultural and educational exchanges. Each year thousands of Japanese educators take whirlwind tours to the United States and around the world. Recently I worked with a group of 23 educators who were spending the last 3 days of a 22 day globe-circling trip, having stopped in Gary, Indiana—their only U.S. stop. This kind of exchange does little to promote mutual understanding.

Perhaps the most worrisome example of these mind-sets is the JET Program—of particular concern because it seems to bring both attitudes to bear in a specific case. There is growing evidence that one objective of this program is to control and limit access to foreign English teaching assistants in the Japanese public schools, crowding out other decentralized or private efforts. The result may be the same whether the intent is that specific or not. The combined fiscal power of the three ministries responsible for the program is so great that local boards of education can do little to resist when this power is applied to them. There is evidence here and there of attempts to continue to support alternative bureaucratic pressure.[2] Local civic leaders in Iwate, Tochigi, and Yamagata-ken have pioneered in developing pilot programs, but in Tochigi, have been pressured to give them up.

In contrast to Japan, the challenges in the United States come from the opposite pole. The sprawling, creative, lusty atomism of American society not only prevents central mobilization of effective responses to the challenges and needs, but prevents people from conceiving such a possibility. The American educational system is decentralized in the extreme. There is no real national or central force or authority in matters of educational policy and practice (the center of gravity operationally is in the state capitals). The budgetary control exercised by local boards of education in the United States inhibits integrated policy initiatives even at the state level. Regional accrediting agencies provide minimal safeguards and incentives for quality control, and are often viewed as inconvenient outside interests to be placated as local needs dictate, not as leaders in articulating a vision or in setting priorities. This extreme decentralization makes cooperation difficult even to meet local or regional needs and affords little chance of mobilizing people or resources to serve larger, national educational goals.

The United States has another reality to face in dealing with the contemporary scene. During the first two centuries of our nationhood we focused much effort and committed tremendous educational resources to meet the need to assimilate immigrant peoples. Laudatory, even essential, as this was, in the late 1980s this history of assimilation leaves millions of Americans literally tongue-tied in their dealings with people from the rest of the world. Most young Americans still do not perceive becoming functionally literate in a second language as essential to their survival. Moreover, recent studies have shown that unless American industries change their practices, those with language skills will not have much chance to use them (Lambert).

In 1987, I served as a consultant to a major regional state university on the East Coast of the United States. The second day of my visit to the campus, after I had met with faculty committees concerned with the development of language and area studies, the president of the university told me categorically that Americans could go anywhere in the world and get along with English. He considered a second language skill acquisition to be a "nice thing" but thought that other needs should receive priority. Even in the mid-1980s only 1 to 2 percent of American undergraduates studied abroad as part of their college education. Many of the most prestigious university research centers with major area studies programs still consider foreign study for undergraduates not worthy of credit and second language learning not worthy of special attention. Neither is viewed to be of intrinsic value in mainstream educational design. Schools of education and teacher training programs show equal disdain for such matters.[3]

The distinctive problems inherent in our respective societies are enough to give us pause as we contemplate the challenges we face. In addition, in both societies, the overweening power of entrenched academic authority and prestige tends to blunt or distort efforts to define the true nature of the challenge and inhibits the creation and legitimizing of effective methods to deal with it. The individual and collective desire of academics to clone themselves is reinforced by the values and the reward systems by which the educational establishments in Japan and the United States are governed.

In the 1960s and 1970s a significant number of quality study programs were developed in Japan by U.S. colleges and universities. Some of these were for graduate students; others, for undergraduates. Significant as these were for the field of Japanese studies, they had little or no effect on the wider educational enterprise in the United States—even though these programs created a sizeable number of new scholars in the field. While such results are welcome and should be celebrated, those efforts, worthy on their own merits, give us little sense of the nature of the challenges—and of the opportunities—we now face. In fact, based as they were on the educational assumptions of the time, they may mislead us as we address contemporary needs. Why is this so?

The academic reward system in our two societies militates against the development of broad-based educational efforts in international education. This is true because such efforts require a stress on interdisciplinary, integrative approaches whereas the rewards go to those with the best disciplinary research and publication records. Neither departments nor professional organizations reward the broader approach; often they denigrate or even penalize those who devote time to developing interdisciplinary programs because the person is neglecting more traditional publishing interests. Equally detrimental to the development of international educational exchange programs is the inherent tendency among successful intellectuals to want, even if unconsciously, to clone themselves. Thus they push good students to do "important" work (i.e., to become research scholars in university centers in order to succeed their mentors). In Japan these tendencies are exacerbated by the examination system that drives young people into even more narrowly defined educational tracks and by an incestuous guild system that dictates that prestigious universities appoint their graduates to faculty posts.

Teacher education in both societies has been and largely still continues to be a wasteland. This results from ever more stringent licensing requirements and the pyramiding of required methods courses in the curriculum while continuing to treat international education as an add-on. In both societies, teachers' unions and administrative power holders jockey for power and for control of the curriculum and the educational agenda while the educational needs of children in today's world go unattended. There is blame on both sides but meanwhile the children suffer. Recently in a small city in Indiana, high school youngsters were denied the opportunity to hear a group of musicians from Japan because teachers and administrators were protecting their respective turf, ignoring a significant opportunity in cultural interchange.

However, hand-wringing and viewing with alarm do little to help us. We must address the issues squarely and with a sense of urgency. Time is short and the needs are great. Our two societies now have in their hands the technology and the know-how to address the problems we face with far more sophisticated and effective methods than we imagined even a decade ago. Satellite up-links and fiberoptic transmission, the computer, and the interactive videodisc, as well as CD-ROM technology, give us powerful tools that cry out to be harnessed to the tasks at hand if we could only define and articulate them effectively. Professional practitioners in these fields could team with academic professionals to produce results that would represent quantum leaps in the acquisition of knowledge and understanding of each other individually and collectively. Yet we spend our

time arguing about already outmoded approaches to the teaching of language and culture or trying to defend our turf—be it academic, or economic, or national.

We need to address three fundamental aspects of the U.S.-Japan relationship. If we do this successfully, we shall be able to design and implement truly effective exchange programs that are built on firm new ground philosophically and technologically.

First, we must rethink and redesign our approach to language learning. "Communicative competence" must become the watchword of a new wave of development in language pedagogy. The educational establishments in both Japan and the United States as yet hardly even recognize the challenge—and the opportunity—that this gives us.

Second, we must tie together even more closely the teaching of language and culture to educational and cultural exchange programs. There is a tendency to say that "only the committed specialist or professional needs to spend time on language." Nothing could be further from the truth. Yet, unfortunately, specialists tend to support and reinforce that attitude.

Third, we must harness the new technology to language and cultural learning in more effective ways. The most obvious near-term objective is to develop the use of such devices as interactive videodisc technology at all levels of language learning as soon as possible. It offers us the possibility of real breakthroughs in this field. While it is only one of many ways to enhance the process, it is immediately available and shows great promise.

As we work on these kinds of programs, we must design them so that they have depth and continuity. No longer can we be satisfied with brief encounters or "one-shot" visits. The depth and continuity that is needed can only be achieved when there is a recognition of the urgency of the need and the commitment that is required.

Any discussion of the issues involved in exchange programs and the use of new technology must be based upon some clearly articulated assumptions about the nature of the learning process. Two principles seem particularly important to enunciate. First, learning, to be effective, must ultimately be focused on self-discovery, not through vague, contemplative navel-gazing but through a carefully designed combination of intellectual awakening (the disciplined development of skills) and personal experience (even if that experience is vicarious or an achievement of the imagination).

The second principle follows from the first. It is to combine judiciously the affective and the cognitive elements of the educational equation and to generate, through their interaction fundamentally new insights. The old either-or/cognitive-affective debate was wrongly conceived and must be put aside. Acquiring knowledge is a cognitive task, making it one's own, harnessing it to understanding and applying it to the real world is best achieved by structured affective educational experiences. Thus language-learning is best reinforced in actual or simulated situations.

In the United States the emphasis on traditional academic classroom work has inhibited institutional support for foreign study in any form, and exchange programs, especially, have suffered from the lack of support. Such activities have been viewed as peripheral to the central academic enterprise at best and shunted off to support service areas and to the supervision of sometimes well-intended but often untrained supervisors. Few traditional academics could identify NAFSA: Association of International Educators or the Council on International Educational Exchange, and fewer still would consider the roles of these organizations centrally important to higher education. While not all of their programs are equally strong, these two groups represent comprehensive efforts to address issues in international education. Because mainstream academics ignore their work, the gaps of misunderstanding within higher education are only widened.

In Japan the emphasis on knowledge acquisition and on the examination mentality is reinforced by ethnocentrism and the closed-society attitude. As a result Japanese academic institutions have been even more reluctant than their U.S. counterparts to recognize—and give academic credit—for work done on exchange programs. In both societies the traditional academic mind reinforces the rigidities of academic structures that then become even more resistant to educational change.

Few fresh breezes from abroad are allowed in through the windows of our academic establishments in either the United States or Japan. However, the winds of change are blowing outside those structures and the realities of our new situation demand creative responses and action. What are these new realities? Two kinds that emerged in the late 1980s are particularly significant, and both are produced by the same phenomenon. This is the emerging global economy of which the United States and Japanese economies are the driving force, though by no means the only actors. Viewed in that larger context, the U.S.-Japan economic relationship, rather than being seen as a polarized axis, is only one element of many in the total equation. Unless we think of it in those terms we shall miss the significance of what is happening, and our diagnoses of our problems will be misleading. With this reality in mind let us examine further what has been happening in the United States and in Japan.

In the second half of the 1980s, thousands of Japanese families relocated abroad as the hollowing out of Japanese industry gained momentum and as Japanese investment flowed out into the rest of the world. This flow of people was not confined to the east and west coasts of the United States or to the big cities of either country. Japanese families have settled everywhere in small-town America. This has created unease and strains on both sides. The prospect of it happening as well as the reality has combined with a decade and a half of American experience with high quality Japanese products to establish a new environment of interest in and acceptance of Japan and its culture. It has also, of course, generated anti-Japanese reactions as well. This is happening at the grass roots level. The alarms and the Japan-bashing at the national political level are not without substance and they have their echoes and repercussions in the hinterland. At the grass roots level there has built up a ground-swell of interest in Japan that can be turned to positive ends.

On the Japanese side the picture also carries dramatic overtones, some of them positive, some of them negative. The *kikoku ship* phenomenon (Japanese children returning from residence abroad) is the tip of an iceberg of internal unease which goes in many directions. For purposes of this discussion the educational implications are central. A major element creating this new reality is the dramatic increase in the number of Japanese acquiring their college education abroad. Tied to this is the widening opportunity for these young people in mainstream careers in Japan which had been closed to them unless they had a degree from a prestigious Japanese university. Japanese society is being infiltrated by a generation of young people who will not be satisfied with the status quo structure and the attitudes it generates and reinforces.

The new elements identified above create a new reality for U.S.-Japan relations as well. The educational structures and the leadership of these structures are ill-equipped to respond to the needs and desires produced by these new realities. Ordinary Americans, especially young people all around the country, are eager to learn more about Japan, its culture, and its language. Japanese young people are reaching out for new ways of learning and are seeing themselves as more than just Japanese. We must respond to these interests and needs and provide effective new structures and opportunities.

The Role of Technology in International Exchange

As we examine the outline of this emerging context, we must consider the potential of the new technology that is now available and already being used in ad hoc ways. We have the tools to make a quantum jump in our effectiveness. At the same time we must be careful not to overstate the potential of these tools. Machines are good servants but poor masters. We must design proper structures to apply and control the technology if we are to use it successfully. Equally important, we must educate people to the potential and the limits of these devices to allay the fears of those who would reject their use and to temper the enthusiasm of those who see them as a panacea.

There are three tools now that must be harnessed to serve our needs. These are the computer and interactive media from the video-disc to CD-ROM. A third, satellite transmission of television, is already being used widely for other purposes and experimentally in education. I shall return to the issue of television later. First, it is necessary to look at the way in which educators tend to approach technology.

In Japan and the United States great strides have been made in harnessing broadcast technology to educational purposes. However, there has been fierce resistance to the medium by mainstream academics and educators. The argument is often couched in value-laden, moralizing terms such as "maintaining academic standards." Lurking behind this facade is a fear that new technology will "put us out of a job." Rational arguments demonstrate that the results will be just the opposite (i.e., that the proper use of good technology will generate more jobs and make the educator's efforts more productive, are brushed aside or ignored). I have encountered this attitude repeatedly in higher education. It is, perhaps, less prevalent in precollegiate education. Yet, in the schools, too, as in higher education, there is a tendency to lag behind the business

community in the introduction and use of new technology.

The State of Language Learning

Nowhere are these trends more evident than in the field of language learning. In both the United States and Japan performance has lagged far behind the potential. While careful analysis reveals that the sources of the problem differ in our two societies, the results speak for themselves.

In the United States the old grammar-vocabulary approach of the 1940s and 1950s gave way to audio-lingual methods as linguists exerted their growing influence. In Japan the enervating hold of written exams over the educational enterprise continues to plague the field of language learning. Whereas in the United States the educational establishment has as yet to recognize the essential need for second language learning, vested interests in Japan from commercial text book publishers to the officials of the Ministry of Education hold English-language learning in Japan hostage to their interest in the status quo and their political power. Language teachers in public schools in the United States are fearful that the addition of Japanese language to the mainstream curriculum will take students away from their classes. (They consider it a "sum zero" game.) Language teachers in Japan fear the "loss" of time to prepare students for exams if the native speaking teacher comes into their classroom to help. (They also feel threatened by the presence of the native speaker, of course, and this heightens their resistance.)

Now, into what is in some sense already a hostile environment come two new factors. First, the larger society senses a clear need for second language skills. Young people are eager to learn and they respond positively to good language teaching. Second, there is an urgent need, in fact an economic demand, for people with such skills. There has been a dramatic shift in the business communities of both countries.

The U.S. and Japanese response to this situation reveals the biases and prejudices that each firmly hold. The academic mind responds to the business person's request for a program to learn Japanese with, "Come and spend the next year in an intensive program and we will prepare you." The business person's response is to demand the "quick fix" short course, and the two sides part with their respective prejudices reinforced. The short-term, "bottom-line" mentality of the business community prevents the business person from even considering the kind of investment that is really needed and the academic is dismissed as out of touch with reality. The academician is constrained by the narrowly defined research and scholarly publishing mentality that governs the reward system in the profession and, all too often, sees the business person as a dabbler who will cheapen the academic coin—or at least divert us from our "real" tasks.

Language study for the short-term visitor to Japan must be different in design and substance from that for the high school student, and that in turn must be different from the program for the graduate student. Methods and substance will change. The new technology makes this possible as never before.

For example, harnessing interactive videodisc technology to the computer can achieve greater flexibility and effectiveness. The videodisc, far more flexible than videotape and more powerful than audio-tape, offers novel ways of reinforcing the learning process. Business and industry are already tapping this new method, but the educational community has yet to discover it. Computer programming that incorporates the interactive videodisc into a larger instructional package offers tremendous potential for effective and flexible instructional modules for language and culture learning. This new technology could be used as a powerful device to break the stranglehold of narrow academic vested interests on the language learning process. It would require careful diplomatic and political maneuvering to implement such plans. The risks are great but the need is urgent.

Designing and producing the necessary software will be a challenge but can be done. However, one other issue will need to be addressed: We must recruit and train a new cadre of teachers to meet these various needs. Ad hoc experiments in teacher training are being conducted in the United States and Japan but the shortage of teachers of Japanese at most levels presents a very serious short-term problem, especially since so many poorly prepared people are recruited to fill the gap.

Exchanges and Television Technology

Experiments with television conferences and satellite-beamed interactive exchanges are not new. There is now a substantial body of experience on which to draw. Special domestic satellite hook-ups are commonplace in both countries. Fiber-optic technology offers the promise of even better quality transmission in the future. Clearly this is a field with great potential for development as the network of relationships between our two societies becomes more complex and potentially more productive. One can imagine sister-city relationships being substantially enhanced when such interaction can be easily arranged. With all this potential we need to assess where we are and think about how long-term utilization of this technology can be better designed and more effectively used.

It seems likely that ad hoc arrangements for teleconferences and related exchanges will continue to burgeon, and these offer a useful medium to highlight opportunities for interaction that can support and promote the long-term objectives of both sides. Civic and educational groups should be able to capitalize on this technology in a variety of ways. As an example in February 1990 a Japanese musical group from Morioka came to Indiana to give a world premiere performance with the Richmond Symphony Orchestra of an arrangement for koto and orchestra of the Japanese classical piece *Rokudan*. A satellite broadcast direct to the Tohoku of this event would have highlighted the growing relationship between a region of Japan and a region of the United States. Such events should become commonplace in the future and will be extremely helpful in building long-term, cultural relationships that can help to cushion or reduce the political and economic frictions that undoubtedly will continue to plague us.

If we are to capitalize on the potential for such uses of technology, we must identify the

fundamental needs and design ways to overcome the obstacles that stand in the way of further development. The events of the first five months of 1989 in Japan and China have provided a kind of proving ground for the impact of live TV broadcast in world affairs. The funeral of the Showa Emperor and the May-June 1989 student uprising in Beijing fed interest in and awareness of events in East Asia among ordinary citizens in the United States. The development of such interest prepares the way for even more effective use of the media in educational and cultural activities and exchanges. The ground is fertile and the seeds of demand have been sown. But how are we to nurture and cultivate them?

The most significant challenges lie ahead. Three fundamental dangers await us and will beset our efforts. The first two are the respective professional stances of the two groups that must cooperate if we are to meet the challenges successfully. The third danger lies in cultural and professional differences between the American and Japanese television industries.

The Television Professional and the Academic Professional

Before they meet, the TV professional and the academic scholar already have their stereotypes of each other. TV professionals fear that academics will flood them with irrelevant facts and insist on showing a series of "talking heads." Scholars, on the other hand, fear that the TV professionals will produce either glorified travelogues or dramatic extravaganzas that will have little or no relationship to the truth about a society. Television mini-series in the United States in the early 1970s such as the Adams Chronicles established that stereotype in the minds of scholars and the recent mini-series entitled "Japan" narrated by Jane Seymour, which aired in the United States in spring 1988 only served to confirm this notion since it was so well produced and was so misleading in its substance. At the same time instructional television has tended to confirm the stereotype of the TV professional about the academicians with their presumed predilection for talking heads.

In the major television series that I directed in the mid-1970s we addressed this problem by establishing a kind of mutual veto for the TV producer and the content director so that each had to listen to the professional concerns of the other. Professional territoriality constantly plagued that project but we were able to overcome it in most instances.[4]

The difficulties we had in creating that series were typical of what must be overcome if we are to meet the challenge and respond to the opportunities of the 1990s. TV professionals, rightly, want visual materials and story lines that will be appealing, dramatic, and fast-moving. Scholars, on the other hand, feel the need to be cautious in their generalizations, qualifying them carefully. Since scholars are used to writing for publication, they expect to use all the paraphernalia of research articles, including footnotes and parentheses. When one informs them that they must state their analysis categorically, succinctly, and with few qualifiers and no footnotes, they are tempted to throw up their hands and walk away.

Donors and sponsors, be they commercial types or bureaucrats, usually want to avoid controversial issues. Television news thrives on controversy and conditions people to want controversy to be the story-line thread that binds a production together. We shall have to resist these tendencies if we are to make the use of the media.

In the next decade, we could, if we so choose, make giant strides in producing video material that would undergird student and civic exchanges with fundamentally sound presentations about our two societies. To do that we must address this need with vision and with substantial resources.

The third danger we must face stems from cultural differences. For many years NHK and other TV producers in Japan, have attempted to get their productions accepted for U.S. showing. The effort has been singularly unsuccessful. Even the fine dramatic series *Oshin* that has been a smash hit in other parts of Asia has not been able to penetrate the U.S. market. At the same time, U.S. commercial TV programs are regularly dubbed in Japanese and viewed in Japan, but U.S. public TV programs receive little attention. This situation results from cultural perceptions and misperception on both sides. At the superficial level it originated in the respective approaches to TV production. Until the late 1970s Japanese TV production in documentary style accepted such things as lack of "lip-synch" in interviews and the like whereas U.S. film and TV makers held to what they considered a higher production standard. On the other hand television people in Japan had little respect for public television in the United States.

At a more fundamental level, differences in approach to production, design, and presentation of both documentary and entertainment TV have not been sufficiently explored to identify ways to meet the objection of one side to showing the other side's material at home. We need to make a concerted effort to seek solutions to this long-standing problem.

One inhibiting factor in this process is the reluctance of each side to display the other's popular culture. The Japanese side often wants to design and export examples of traditional high culture. We had great difficulty in getting pieces of "home drama" to use in the production of the 30-minute culture and history series we produced in the 1970s. There is also a tendency for each side to want to go to the other culture and produce its own view of the other, designed from the outside observer's perspective. Some of this work can be very useful but there is a need for the insider's view of their own society, and both Japanese and Americans need to listen and look more carefully at such productions and interact with each other on the basis of some of this material. These kinds of exchanges could be very fruitful.

Having catalogued some of the serious problems we face in developing better exchange programs and new and better uses of technology, we must go on to design new strategies to deal with these problems. Taking the longer perspective there are hopeful signs, and there is much we can do that gives promise for the future. Not the least of these signs is the recognition on both sides to harness our better motives and vision to the available

technology.

Addressing the Issues and the Problems

Language Learning and Exchange Programs

We must redesign many of our approaches to language learning. It must become a more integrated part of cultural and educational exchange programs. The cliché that language is part of culture must be given substance. As exchange programs increase exponentially there must be learning packages designed that will meet the specific needs of those who are using them. Such packages are especially needed for the preparation and orientation of exchange groups.

There continues to be a stance in the language teaching profession that divides people into "serious" language learners and dabblers. This attitude separates language from culture in unfortunate ways. Not long ago I gave a talk to a group of Japanese business executives and American state directors of economic development. Directors from 11 midwestern states were present. They each gave brief self-introductions about their state and their work. Not one of these directors could pronounce Japanese names correctly. I was ashamed of my fellow Americans. However, the academic community has not responded well to this lack, and neither the teachers nor the materials are yet available to help such people. Teachers and linguists tend to stand around and talk about such people's lack of commitment instead of thinking imaginatively about how to help them. At Earlham College we are developing teaching and learning modules which will, we believe, address this need. We are designing a 20 to 30 hour introduction to Japanese language and culture for short-term visitors to Japan. We have prepared several short-course units for local community leaders who will be dealing with Japanese business executives and their families as well as units to help Japanese business people deal with local workers and small town life in the United States.

The first step in meeting the need is to assess the types of exchange relationships that are emerging and to develop specific learning packages to meet these program needs. Perhaps the most challenging task on the U.S. side will be to identify and define accurately the needs of groups that do not fit the narrow category of the Japan studies professional. Exchange programs and approaches to learning Japanese language have been dominated by the Japan studies professionals who wanted to clone themselves and exchange programs to be administered by international exchange professionals who know little about Japan. In addition there is a continuing tension among three groups: area studies professionals, disciplinary scholars, and academic people with a global problems orientation. Some of this tension is generated by the desire to protect vested interest or a desire to hold or extend educational power, but underlying that at a more fundamental level is the real problem of balance and perspective. Elements of each of these three approaches are needed and must be joined to readily identifiable practical needs in the worlds of education, business, diplomacy, and science to create the necessary structures

and content to deal with the problems we face. This is a tremendous task and an exciting one. Fortunately the technology now available will help us to do this if we will expend the effort and provide the monetary resources.

It is important to recognize however, that we shall need a whole new range of services and learning opportunities if we are to meet the demand that is being generated by the ever-closer interaction of our two societies. Americans are going to Japan and Japanese are going to the United States for many and more varied reasons than they were a decade ago. While tourism continues to be important and formal educational exchange programs are increasing fast, the newest dimension of interaction is that of small town, U.S.A., and the Japanese business community. Neither side knows what to do about this new circumstance. There is a large amount of goodwill on both sides, but there is also greed, ethnocentrism, and the legacy of the Pacific War. Our greatest single need in the next five years is to devise ways to generate real understanding and positive results from this great cross-cultural experiment. Time is short because the honeymoon period may already be over in some places, and it will soon end in many others. Will the mechanisms and the resources be available as people discover the need for much better and deeper understanding once the euphoria of the "great beginning" ends? This is the task that lies before us.

A subcategory of need in this arena is to help Japanese and Americans probe more deeply into the meaning of the relative homogeneity of Japan and of the multiethnic realities of American society. Latent racism toward the other exists in both societies, and recently this has been evident in public statements by political leaders on both sides. We need to design specific mechanisms and exchange programs that will generate understanding, not confrontation. In Indiana a potentially significant seven year experiment has brought 16 school systems from all over the state into intimate contact with Japan. By early 1992, 25 to 30 school systems in Indiana were teaching Japanese. A number of these systems contain large ethnic minority groups; one is over 90 percent black in its ethnic composition. Minority educators and Japanese educators can benefit greatly from the kind of interaction that this program provides. Many other similar efforts are needed.

Conclusion

Any survey of developments in exchange programs between Japan and the United States is out of date before it is finished. The presence of some 1,500 to 2,000 young Americans in the Japanese educational system and of thousands of Japanese in small towns across the United States will, in the next few years, radically change the nature of this relationship. This is part of a larger worldwide process of integration which is under way. It is particularly evident in the Pacific Rim countries. None of us can predict the results. Japanese decry the loss of Japaneseness by returning young people, and Americans decry the "selling of America" to foreign investors. The sheer numbers of our peoples who are mingling through exchange programs and the creative sparks they are generating suggest some of the directions we may want to go and some of the results we may expect regardless of what we decide to do. Yet the situation is far from hopeless. Had we been making this present assessment in 1948, we would surely have predicted

disaster (as the demographers who looked at Japan then did with regard to Japan's burgeoning population). Still we should recognize that in the period from 1948 to 1960, the ground was prepared, the seeds sown, and the people trained who now lead our respective countries at the highest levels. The U.S. Occupation of Japan, which took thousands of young Americans to Japan, and the GARIOA and Fulbright programs, which brought hundreds, if not thousands, of young Japanese to the United States, were the improbable sources of this leadership. If we apply our minds creatively and commit our resources judiciously it should be possible for us to create a whole new generation of leaders, better trained and better prepared than we have been for the 21st century. By any valid measurement there exists now a reservoir of fundamental goodwill in each country that could never have been predicted in those "bad old days" of World War II and the postwar decades. Out of that unlikely maelstrom came great resources—human and societal—that can now serve us as we build toward another, even greater breakthrough in understanding. If we have the will and the vision and work together toward that end, the 21st century will find us even more intimately—and productively—intertwined in all the facets of our daily lives.

The task is formidable; we must redesign our approach to teaching languages. We must reintegrate beginning language instruction as a key to cultural understanding. We must harness the new technology to these tasks in more effective ways. Interactive media harnessed by the computer can play a vital and dynamic role in this effort.

These steps will lead to a renewed effort to incorporate more effective methods into cultural exchange programs at all levels, from those for the casual visitor to those for the scientific researcher. The enormity of the task we face bears in upon us. At the same time, when we review what has been accomplished in the last four decades, we should take heart. Americans and Japanese are improbable partners in the creation of new ways of cultural interchange and cultural understanding, yet we have accomplished a great deal. Let the process continue!

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[1]It is estimated that there are up to 100,000 Japanese living in the New York area alone. In the Chicago area, this estimate is 16,213 (1980 census).

[2]It should be noted, however, that in the larger political picture there are encouraging signs as well. See Samuels, R.The Politics of Regional Policy in Japan: Princeton University Press, Princeton, NJ, 1983; and my book, Ordinary people, Extraordinary Lives.Political and Economic Change in a Tohoku Village, University of Hawaii Press, 1991, Chapter 5, for discussions of these countervailing forces which clearly are at work.

[3]This is not to denigrate the rays of light that shine from the exceptional places where dedicated and committed people work nor to ignore the efforts of national groups such as the AACTE to draw attention to and to stimulate renewed efforts in international education and second language competence. The fact remains that all such efforts face entrenched interests which ignore or resist such thinking or at best consider these things an interesting add-on to an already overcrowded list of required courses.

[4]For a detailed account of the history of the production of this series Japan: The Living

Tradition and Japan: The Changing Tradition, see the Hoso Bunka Foundation HBF Newsletter, No. 15, November 1982.

MOREHOUSE COLLEGE OFFERS A NEW DIRECTION IN JAPANESE AFRICAN AMERICAN RELATIONS

Lee Gallo

I am from Morehouse College where I have taught Spanish for ten years. Last year, I was appointed director of studies abroad. Morehouse is a private undergraduate liberal arts college of 2,600 students located in metropolitan Atlanta. We are one member of the consortium of five black institutions of higher education that constitute the Atlanta University Center. This consortium is responsible for Atlanta's claim of graduating more black university students than any other city in the world.

In the United States, there are only three all-male, liberal arts colleges. Morehouse is the only one for black males. We are one of the approximately 4 percent (120/3,400) of the historically black institutions of higher learning in the United States. These historically black colleges are colleges that were established after the Civil War in order to educate newly freed slaves. We have the distinction of being one of only three black colleges with a charter of Phi Beta Kappa, the most prestigious academic fraternity among U.S. institutions of higher learning. And this year, the extremely popular guide to U.S. colleges, *Peterson's Competitive Colleges 1989–90*, ranks Morehouse within the elite, or top 10 percent of all American colleges.

My first involvement with international education in general and with the Japanese in particular goes back about 15 years when I first moved to Atlanta and began teaching at Georgia State University. My courses included a special, two-month summer program that was based on our campus by the Council on International Educational Exchange—an organization which came into being shortly after World War II to help reestablish educational exchange programs, and which continues to be one of the two or three major U.S. institutions of its type. The students or participants in this special program were groups of 20 to 40 Japanese businessmen and bankers in mid-level management positions.

I remember being a little surprised and disturbed by the distance that existed between our Japanese participants and the blacks of Atlanta--a distance that could not have been easy to maintain in an urban area that is 70 percent black. I remember on one occasion, a participant asked me what I did during the rest of the year. When I explained that I taught at a private liberal arts college for black male students, his response was "why?" I was stunned. Did he really think it was incomprehensible that a white person would teach at a black college? Surely not. I thought to myself that he must not have meant to say "why"; and I began to wonder if maybe we were doing something wrong in our English classes.

I am idealistic enough to hope that the presence of a representative from a black U.S. college at this symposium may indicate that we are officially attempting to bridge this distance. Perhaps it's not too much of an exaggeration to suggest that our proposal may constitute a milestone in relations between our two countries—a milestone that

incidentally would not be possible without the support of the Japan-U.S. Friendship Commission.

This proposal by Morehouse aims to improve understanding between black Americans and the Japanese. The plan is to bring five Morehouse College faculty members, including the president, to Japan for two weeks. They will visit college and university campuses with strong international interests where they will give presentations on different topics of black American culture. Hopefully they will also meet with Japanese politicians and businessmen who are interested in how their policies affect black Americans.

Our project got its start two years ago when Morehouse inaugurated a new president, Dr. Leroy Keith, whose goal was to further internationalize the campus. He invited me to work with him, and my first duty was to meet with Mr. Seiho Tajiri, a local "retired" Japanese businessman.

I soon realized that there is absolutely nothing "retired" about Mr. Tajiri. Some 25 years ago he founded the Japanese African American Society to foster a spirit of good will between the Japanese and black Americans. He accomplishes this through economic, social, political, educational, scientific, and technological exchanges and programs. He arranged for the first black trade mission to Japan and for the visits of Reverends Hosea Williams and Ralph Abernathy during which they met with the prime minister. Mr. Tajiri has also participated in the National Conference of Black Mayors; he is negotiating with the Black Congressional Caucus regarding Japanese business practices; and he is sponsoring a delegation of 20 black women who visited Japan. Mr. Tajiri also helps provide scholarships to send black college students to Japan for one year of language study.

At our meeting, Mr. Tajiri encouraged me to create a plan that would involve Morehouse College with Japan. To help establish some guidelines for a project, I decided to contact several local and national Japanese organizations. From my research, I learned that past Japanese exposure to black Americans has been limited almost exclusively to artists and athletes--with very little exposure to black scholars and educators. Perhaps this narrow acquaintance, in part, explains some of the misconceptions that have surfaced in the Japanese media over the last year or so. Whatever the cause for the misconceptions, it seemed clear to me that if Japan is to truly understand the society of its major industrial partner, she should have firsthand exposure to the intellectual life of this most powerful minority group—a group that presently constitutes approximately 12 percent of the total U.S. population.

The Japanese organizations that I contacted reported to me that the topics concerning black Americans which would be of most interest to a Japanese audience were (1) the changing role of blacks in America's political and economic arenas, (2) the urbanization and changing lifestyles of American blacks, and (3) black America's emphasis on education. I knew that Morehouse College had professors who could serve as eminently qualified, native informants on these topics. The obvious proposal for us to create, then, was one that would allow us to offer the Japanese an authentic view of the mainstream

life of black America. This is what we have created.

Our president and our four professors who have been selected to participate in the project will have the opportunity to learn firsthand about Japan. Most of these participants have no direct knowledge of Japan. However, because of their disciplines—specifically sociology, international politics, international business, education, and studies abroad—they are acutely aware of the professional benefit such an experience offers. They agree that it is crucial that a college of our caliber address the need for more information about Japan. This project will serve as an important first step.

Our need for more information is considerable. Recently, among the Morehouse students, there has been unprecedented interest in Japan. In fact, the interest is such that, in response to student requests, we will begin offering Japanese language instruction this fall. (Morehouse will then be part of that elite group of only 6 percent of U.S. colleges and universities that offer classes in the Japanese language.)

Another example of this unprecedented interest on our campus is a report from our new Studies Abroad Office. Approximately half of the students who ask about studying abroad want to go to Japan. Therefore, in addition to reporting to the Japanese on black America and further educating selected members of our own faculty, a final purpose of our proposed trip will be to establish contacts for future student/faculty exchanges. This will be one of my primary functions during our visit.

As Dr. Martin Luther King said during his visit to Oslo, Norway, in 1964 when he went to receive the Nobel Prize for Peace: "The richer we have become materially, the poorer we have become morally and spiritually. We have learned to fly the air like birds and swim the sea like fish, but we have not yet learned the simple art of living together as brothers. " Dr. King would be proud that today his alma mater is helping our two countries learn this simple art.

The Future of International Cultural Exchange

If blacks are going to be included in future international exchanges, we need more creative ways to better encourage and to finance their participation.

Presently, very few blacks are going abroad. The organizations that compile statistics on these programs (e.g., the Council on International Educational Exchange) complain about the severe underrepresentation of blacks. These organizations also stress, as one of their primary objectives for the future, the need to recruit more of this minority group. Nevertheless, such organizations have no specific statistics on the number of blacks who participate in these programs. To give you an example of the problem, the national average for U.S. students studying abroad is 3 percent; and the percentage of Morehouse College students studying abroad is fewer than 1/4 of 1 percent.

I have been astonished at how few black colleges even have study abroad offices or any organized means of advising students who might want to participate in international exchange. Morehouse just established such an office this year. Spelman College, our female counterpart in Atlanta, has had an office for about eight years, and they have maybe 2 percent of their students studying abroad. I don't know of any other black college that has a formally established study-abroad program, and I have contacted several of the better known black colleges. This absence makes it difficult to even identify the black students that we might want to encourage to study abroad.

Financing is a severe handicap for the black student, even at Morehouse. Compared to other black colleges, we are in good shape. We have experienced a surge in enrollment during this recent era of generally decreased college enrollment among black males: 2,600 students now compared to about 1,800 students only three or four years ago. More of our students come from two-parent homes than is the norm for black families. Over half of our students come from families in which both parents have bachelor's degrees, and the average yearly income for our students' families is $46,000; these are also above the norm for black families. Yet 70 percent of our students receive some financial assistance, 30 percent qualify for special federal government grants (Pell) given to the most needy students, and 15 percent come from what are considered poverty homes. Furthermore, our tuition was only $5,000 last year (incredibly low for a private college), and is yet one more reason why most students who come to Morehouse are simply not prepared for the unusual expenses of an abroad program which generally cost more than three times more their yearly tuition at Morehouse.

We have received some limited cooperation from Japanese companies. Toyota, for example, has committed itself to providing complete four-year scholarships to four of our students. Hopefully this will expand, but these grants are not getting our students abroad. Right now we have only two, one-year scholarships that bring our students to Japan.

If a significant number of our students are going to study in Japan we are going to need a lot more financial help. I would like to see Japanese companies visit our campus to recruit future employees, and then help these students in financing studies in Japan.

NAFSA
ASSOCIATION OF
INTERNATIONAL
EDUCATORS

Suite 1000
1875 Connecticut Avenue, NW
Washington, DC 20009-5728

Telephone 202/462.4811
Telecopier 202/667.3419
Bitnet NAFSA@VTVM2

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